

# The concept of primes and the algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor in Ancient China

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## Abstract

When people mention the number theoretical achievements in Ancient China, the famous Chinese Remainder Theorem always springs to mind. But, two more of them—the concept of primes and the algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor, are rarely spoken. Some scholars even think that Ancient China has not the concept of primes. The aim of this paper is to show that the concept of primes in Ancient China can be traced back to the time of Confucius (about 500 B.C.) or more ago. This implies that the concept of primes in Ancient China is much earlier than the concept of primes in Euclid's *Elements* (about 300 B.C.) of Ancient Greece. We also show that the algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor in Ancient China is essentially the Euclidean algorithm or the binary gcd algorithm. Donald E. Knuth said that "the binary gcd algorithm was discovered by J. Stein in 1961". Nevertheless, Knuth was wrong. The ancient Chinese algorithm is clearly much earlier than J. Stein's algorithm.

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## 1 Introduction

China was the first nation who studied indeterminate equations. In the west, indeterminate equations also are called Diophantine equations. They are indeterminate polynomial equations that allow the variables to be integers or rational numbers only. The word Diophantine refers to the Hellenistic

mathematician of the 3rd century, Diophantus of Alexandria, who made a study of such equations. He was the author of *Arithmetica* and also was one of the first mathematicians to introduce symbolism into algebra. However, before the 1st century, the indeterminate equation "wu jia gong jin" was studied well in Ancient China. The question of "wu jia gong jin" is just to find the solutions of Diophantine equation  $f = 2a + b = 3b + c = 4c + d = 5d + e = 6e + a$ . Ancient Chinese mathematicians have found the least positive integral solutions as follows:  $f = 721, a = 265, b = 191, c = 148, d = 129, e = 76$ . See *jiu zhang suan shu* or [1].

When people mention the number theoretical achievements in Ancient China, the famous Chinese Remainder Theorem always springs to mind. Undoubtedly, Chinese Remainder Theorem is the greatest number theoretical-theorem of Ancient China. But, two more of them—the concept of primes and the algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor, are rarely spoken. Some scholars even think that Ancient China has not the concept of primes. The aim of this paper is to introduce these two great number theoretical achievements in Ancient China.

We show that the concept of primes in Ancient China can be traced back to the time of Confucius or more ago. As we know, Confucius was a Chinese thinker and philosopher. His teachings have deeply influenced the thought and life of many nations. He was born in 551 B.C. and died in 479 B.C.. Therefore, the time of Confucius is roughly equal to the time of Pythagoras (about 500 B.C.). This implies that the concept of primes in Ancient China is much earlier than the concept of primes in Euclid's *Elements* (about 300 B.C.) [2] of Ancient Greece.

We also show that the algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor in Ancient China is essentially the Euclidean algorithm [2] or the binary gcd algorithm [3], see Chapter 1 of *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art* [1]. Donald E. Knuth [4] said that "the binary gcd algorithm was discovered by J. Stein in 1961". Nevertheless, Knuth was wrong. As we know, "The Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art" (pinyin: *jiu zhang suan shu*) is a Chinese mathematics book, composed by several generations of scholars from the 10th-2nd century B.C., its latest stage being from the 1st century A.D.. This book is the one of the earliest surviving mathematical texts from China, the first being *suan shu shu* (202 B.C.-186 B.C.) and *zhou bi suan jing*". Therefore, the ancient Chinese algorithm is clearly much earlier than J. Stein's algorithm. For the details, see Section 2.

## 2 The algorithm for counting the greatest common divisor in Ancient China

The Euclidean algorithm [2] has several useful variants [5]. Here, we introduce only the ancient Chinese algorithm for computing the greatest common divisor of two positive integers, in which all the divisions by 2 performed can be done using shifts or Boolean operations. For its details, see Chapter 1 of *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art*[1]. Chapter 1 of *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art*[1] is called "fang tian" or *land surveying*. In this chapter, the reduction of fraction has been studied. The original text is the following: " ke ban zhe ban zhi, bu ke ban zhe, fu zhi fen mu, fen zi zhi shu, yi shao jian duo, geng xiang jian sun, qiu qi deng ye, yi deng shu yue zhi." From this, one can obtain the following algorithm.

**The ancient Chinese algorithm:** For a positive integer  $a$  and a non-negative integer  $b$ , this algorithm finds  $\gcd(a, b)$ . To begin with, we write  $a = 2^e x$  and  $b = 2^f y$  by pre-computing, where  $x$  and  $y$  are positive odd integers,  $e$  and  $f$  are non-negative integers. Note that  $\gcd(a, b) = 2^{\min\{e, f\}} \gcd(x, y)$ . So, finding  $\gcd(a, b)$  is sufficient to find  $\gcd(x, y)$ .

**Step 1.** If  $x = y$  then output  $\gcd(x, y) = x$  and terminate the algorithm.

**Step 2.** Compute  $x - y = z$ , where  $z$  is a positive odd integer. When  $y \geq z$ , set  $x \leftarrow y$  and  $y \leftarrow z$ . Otherwise set  $x \leftarrow z$  and  $y \leftarrow y$ . And go to Step 1.

**A toy example:** Compute  $\gcd(98, 63)$ .

**Solution:** By the ancient Chinese algorithm, we do the following one by one:

$$98-63=35$$

$$63-35=28$$

$$35-28=7$$

$$28-7=14$$

$$14-7=7$$

$$7=7$$

$$\text{So } \gcd(98, 63) = 7.$$

Clearly, this algorithm is actually Euclid's algorithm for computing the greatest common divisor of two positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  when  $a$  and  $b$  are not simultaneously even. People also call the ancient Chinese algorithm *geng xiang jian sun shu*. Also based on the aforementioned original text, we get the variant of ancient Chinese algorithm.

**The variant of ancient Chinese algorithm:** For any given positive odd integers  $x$  and  $y$ , without loss of generality, we assume that  $x \geq y$ , this algorithm finds their greatest common divisor  $\gcd(x, y)$  as follows.

**Step 1.** If  $x = y$  then output  $\gcd(x, y) = x$  and terminate the algorithm.

**Step 2.** Compute  $x - y = 2^g z$ , where  $g$  is a non-negative integer, and  $z$  is a positive odd integer. When  $y \geq z$ , set  $x \leftarrow y$  and  $y \leftarrow z$ . Otherwise set  $x \leftarrow z$  and  $y \leftarrow y$ . And go to Step 1.

**Another toy example:** Compute  $\gcd(98, 63)$ .

**Solution:** By the aforementioned variant of ancient Chinese algorithm, we do the following one by one:

$$98 - 63 = 35$$

$$63 - 35 = 28$$

$$28 = 4 \times 7$$

$$35 - 7 = 28$$

$$28 = 4 \times 7$$

$$7 = 7$$

$$\text{So } \gcd(98, 63) = 7.$$

By the aforementioned algorithms, one can write the binary gcd algorithm as follows [6].

**The binary gcd algorithm:** Given two non-negative integers  $a$  and  $b$ , this algorithm finds their gcd.

**Step 1.** If  $a < b$  exchange  $a$  and  $b$ . Now, if  $b = 0$ , output  $\gcd(a, b) = a$  and terminate the algorithm. Otherwise, set  $r \leftarrow a \bmod b$ ,  $a \leftarrow b$  and  $b \leftarrow r$ .

**Step 2.** If  $b = 0$  output  $\gcd(a, b) = a$  and terminate the algorithm. Otherwise, set  $k \leftarrow 0$ , and then while  $a$  and  $b$  are both even, set  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ ,  $a \leftarrow a/2$ ,  $b \leftarrow b/2$ .

**Step 3.** If  $a$  is even, repeat  $a \leftarrow a/2$  until  $a$  is odd. Otherwise, if  $b$  is even, repeat  $b \leftarrow b/2$  until  $b$  is odd.

**Step 4.** Set  $t \leftarrow (a - b)/2$ . If  $t = 0$ , output  $\gcd(a, b) = 2^k a$  and terminate the algorithm.

**Step 5.** While  $t$  is even, set  $t \leftarrow t/2$ . Then if  $t > 0$  set  $a \leftarrow t$ , else set  $b \leftarrow -t$  and go to Step 4.

**Remark 1:** A challenging mathematical problem is to find an asymptotic estimate for the number of steps and the number of shifts performed in the binary gcd algorithm. See [4] and [6].

### 3 The concept of primes in Ancient China

From Euclid's *Elements* [2], we know that the concept of primes is one of the important number theoretical achievements in Ancient Greece. Generally speaking, the concept of primes in Ancient China goes back to Shanlan Li. In [7], Dunjie Yan pointed out that Shanlan Li proved that Fermat's little theorem and gave four methods for testing whether a number is prime or not. This leads that some scholars even think that Ancient China has not the concept of primes because Shanlan Li was born in 1811 and died in 1882. Maybe, the main reason that people have been misguided is of that the work of Ancient Chinese mathematicians has not been disseminated well.

Shanlan Li was not the first person in China who has the concept of primes at all. By internet, we learn that Guoping Kong pointed out that Hui Yang was the first to propose the concept of primes in China. In 1274, Hui Yang published his book *Cheng Chu Tong Bian Ben Mo* which means Alpha and omega of variations on multiplication and division appeared. In this book, Hui Yang gave a quick algorithm for multiplication. He said: "cheng wei fan zhe, yue wei er duan, zuo er ci cheng zhi, shu ji wei jian er yi cheng, zi ke wu wu ye." What he said is of that in order to count  $a \times b$ , one had better factor firstly  $a$  or  $b$  such that  $a = c \times d$  or  $b = e \times f$ , additionally, count  $a \times e = m$ , and  $m \times f = n$ , and so on, finally,  $a \times b = n$ . For example, let's compute  $38367 \times 23121$ . Firstly, we factor  $23121 = 3^2 \times 7 \times 367$ . Secondly, compute  $38367 \times 9 = 345303$ ,  $345303 \times 7 = 2417121$  and  $2417121 \times 367 = 887083407$ . So,  $38367 \times 23121 = 887083407$ . Clearly, Hui Yang's method looks efficient once one can factor quickly the multiplicand or multiplier. But, as we know, factoring a large number  $n$  indeed is hard unless  $n$  has only small prime divisors. Fortunately, due to the requirement of his method, Hui Yang gave the definition of irreducible numbers. A number  $n > 1$  is irreducible if  $n$  can not be factored as the product of two numbers which are less than  $n$ . Hui Yang's irreducible numbers in fact are prime numbers. It enables us to understand that there are different understandings of "primes" in Ancient China. Furthermore, he listed all irreducible numbers (primes) between 200 and 300 as follows: 211, 223, 227, 229, 233, 239, 241, 251, 257, 263, 269, 271, 277, 281, 283 and 293. Hui Yang's work on irreducible numbers is very significative.

Was Hui Yang the first person in Ancient China who has the concept of primes? Surely, the answer is no. Clearly, the concept of "irreducible" is very closely related the reduction of fraction. And the reduction of fraction has

been studied well in *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art*. It's also worth noting that Hui Yang studied carefully *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art*, and in 1261, he wrote the *Xiang jie jiu zhang suan fa* (Detailed analysis of the mathematical rules in the *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art* and their reclassifications). If the concept of "irreducible" is very closely related to the reduction of fraction, then it should go back to *suan shu shu* (202 B.C.-186 B.C.) because in this book, the reduction of fraction has been studied well. From this, one can see again that Ancient Chinese mathematicians (202 B.C.-186 B.C.) had algorithms for counting the greatest common divisor of two integers. Did *Nine Chapters on the Mathematical Art* grow out of *suan shu shu*? I think that is reasonable, but not sure. Anyway, the concept of primes in Ancient China should exist prior to *suan shu shu* which perhaps is the first mathematical book of China.

Moreover, from the preface of his magnum opus *History of the Theory of Numbers, Volume I: Divisibility and Primality*, Leonard Eugene Dickson [8] wrote: "Fermat stated in 1640 that he had a proof of the fact, now known as Fermat's little theorem, that, if  $p$  is any prime and  $x$  is any integer not divisible by  $p$ , then  $x^{p-1} - 1$  is divisible by  $p$ . This is one of the fundamental theorem of the theory of numbers. The case  $x = 2$  was known to the Chinese as early as 500 B.C." From this, it can be seen that there must be the concept of primes in Ancient China. In the first paragraph of the third chapter of [8], Dickson wrote again: "The Chinese seem to have known as early as 500 B.C. that  $2^p - 2$  is divisible by the prime  $p$ ." Then, he wrote [8, pp91]: "In a Chinese manuscript dating from the time of Confucius it is stated erroneously that  $2^{n-1} - 1$  is not divisible by  $n$  if  $n$  is not prime." This is called the "Chinese hypothesis" or "Chinese congruence" today. As we mentioned in Section 1, the time of Confucius is roughly equal to the time of Pythagoras (about 500 B.C.). Although Ancient Chinese mathematicians perhaps have not found that  $2^{341-1} - 1$  is divisible by  $341 = 11 \times 31$ , we see again that the ancient Chinese as early as 500 B.C must have the concept of primes from this. This implies that the concept of primes in Ancient China is much earlier than the concept of primes in Euclid's *Elements* (about 300 B.C.) of Ancient Greece.

**Remark 2:** In his books *The New Book of Prime Number Records* or *The little book of the bigger primes*, Ribenboim, P. pointed out "it is incorrect to ascribe this question (the Chinese congruence) to the ancient Chinese....." However, in their book *su shu pan ding yu da shu fen jie* (*The determination of primes and decomposition of large numbers*), Qi Sun and Jinghua

Kuang pointed out that the Chinese congruence has been studied in *Book of Changes* of Ancient China. As we know, *Book of Changes* is also called *Zhou yi*, *Classic of Changes*, *I Ching*, *Yi King* or *Yi Jing* (Pinyin). It is one of the oldest of the Chinese classic texts more than 3000 years ago. It not only is a philosophical and divinatory book but also has mathematical significance. It is the source of the binary numeral system. "Richard S. Cook reported that *Book of Changes* demonstrated a relation between the golden ratio and linear recurrence sequences." And so on. G.W. Leibniz studied carefully *Book of Changes* and believed incorrectly that the Chinese congruence holds. The aim of this paper is not to talk about the Chinese congruence. From this, we believe again that there must be the concept of primes in Ancient China although there are different understandings of "primes".

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